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ABSTRACT

This report synthesizes knowledge and instructional practices appropriate for effective instruction in classrooms comprised of students from three or more linguistic backgrounds. It specifically targets beginning teachers in Arizona, California, and Nevada schools where numbers of ethnically, culturally, and linguistically diverse students have increased dramatically. Following an introduction, the publication is organized into four sections: (1) "The Striking Contrast between the Region's Teachers and Students" presents facts and figures concerning changing student demographics and the concurrent lack of a demographic shift in the teaching force; (2) "Basic Knowledge about Language Development and Second Language Acquisition for Beginning Teachers" presents major findings from research on language development and second language learning, discusses the role of the students' first language in English acquisition, and draws implications of this research for beginning teachers who have not received special training to teach language minority students; (3) "Effective Instructional Practices With Language Minority Students" addresses English-language-development practices and ways to examine students' different cultures; and (4) "Training and Supporting Beginning Teachers in Diverse Settings' focuses on helping beginning teachers acquire knowledge and employ practices identified as effective in teaching language minority students. A 55-item reference list is appended. (LL)

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Promoting Beginning Teachers' Success in Teaching Linguistically Diverse Students: A Synthesis Of Relevant Knowledge and Practice

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April 1992

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INTRODUCTION

Often, words like dramatic, unprecedented, and staggering are used to describe recent increases in the numbers of ethnically, culturally, and linguistically diverse students in Arizona, California, and Nevada schools. Many are language minority students who "enter the formal education process from homes and communities in which English is not the primary language of communication" (Garcia, 1992, p. 1). They either speak no English or have limited English proficiency (LEP). Throughout the Western region, chances are great they will be taught by a teacher who is Anglo, who has received little or no training in how to teach language minority students, and who does not speak the students' primary language(s).

This report provides a synthesis of knowledge and instructional practices appropriate to and necessary for effective instruction in classrooms "comprised of students from three or more linguistic backgrounds, with at least one of these subgroups of students coming from homes where the language is other than English" (Tikunoff & Ward, 1991, p. 1).

While much of what is presented in the report constitutes important knowledge and effective practice at any point in a teacher's career, it is particularly important for beginning teachers in the Western region to acquire the knowledge and use the instructional practices discussed. Over the next decade, more new teachers will join the teaching ranks in Arizona, California, and Nevada than ever before in response to two trends. First, the region will experience a rash of teacher retirements. Second, districts will need to increase their teaching ranks to meet the Western region's continued student enrollment growth. In California, for example, teachers with five or fewer years of teaching experience already constitute one quarter of the state's teachers (Guthrie et al., 1991).

In addition, most of the region's beginning teachers, those who do not have bilingual teaching credentials or special language development certification, are not particularly well-prepared for assignments in multicultural, multilingual settings (Hafner & Green, 1992; Olsen & Mullen, 1990; Dianda, 1991). Yet, increasingly the region's beginning teachers will be called upon to teach language minority students. In fact, critical shortages of bilingual and specially trained teachers mean that the regular classroom is the predominant instructional setting for most of the language minority students in the Western region (and indeed, nationally) (Fradd, 1987; Castaneda, 1991).

This report is an outgrowth of work related to building new teachers' success in teaching language minority students conducted by Southwest Regional Laboratory's (SWRL) Metropolitan Educational Trends and Research Outcomes (METRO) Center. The METRO Center's research, development, dissemination, and technical assistance activities help metropolitan school districts in the Western region meet the educational challenges created by growing numbers of educationally disadvantaged students, many of whom are recent immigrants and refugees.

The first section presents facts and figures concerning changing student demographics in Arizona, California, and Nevada, and the concurrent lack of a demographic shift in the region's teaching force. As students become more diverse, the region's teachers remain "predominantly white, monolingual and unprepared to deal with a diverse student enrollment" (Olsen & Mullen, 1990). The region's teachers will remain overwhelmingly Anglo and monolingual for the foreseeable future, but they can prepare for the challenges that changing student demographics pose.

According to the Commission on Teacher Credentialing (CTC), California's state-level teacher certification body, teachers of language minority students "need to be knowledgeable about language structure, language development, and second-language acquisition. They also need to be competent in English-language-development instructional methodologies, including ways of

infusing content with English language instruction, and they must be knowledgeable about the important role of students' cultures in education" (CTC, 1992, p. 3). In light of this, the second part of the report synthesizes major findings from research on language development and second language acquisition, discusses the role of the students' first language in English acquisition, and draws implications of this research for beginning teachers who have not received special training to teach language minority students.

The English-language-development practices and ways to address students' different cultures that the California Commission mentioned are discussed in the third section of the report. Some of the practices were identified in studies of effective instruction in bilingual education programs, a broad category that includes a range of programs where teachers provide instruction in the students' first language and English. Other effective practices are from studies of immersion programs in which English is taught through the content or subject areas and the student's first language is limited, primarily to clarify English instruction. A final set of effective practices are provided by studies of effective instruction in classrooms in which students speak so many different languages that teachers modify the curriculum, their class materials, and their own instructional delivery in English to make it understandable to their students. These strategies are variously called sheltered English, English as a Second Language (ESL), English language development (ELD), sheltered content, and sheltered instruction (Castaneda, 1992). All are used in conjunction with some form of additional instructional support that uses the student's first language. This support might be a formal bilingual education program. Or primary language support might be provided through student grouping, pairing, or cross-age tutoring strategies in which other students are used as first-language resources (Lucas & Katz, 1991). Other teaching staff members, bilingual aides, parents, or community members also might provide first-language support to students.

The fourth and final section of the report focuses on helping beginning teachers acquire knowledge and employ practices identified as effective in teaching language-minority students. This section focuses on preservice preparation, as well as induction assistance during the first and second year of teaching. The added help available to new teachers through induction programs generally includes staff development training, as well as support from experienced teachers. Ideally, these experienced teachers are experts in meeting the learning needs of language-minority students. However, given the striking contrast between the region's teachers and students discussed in the next section, the numbers of these expert experienced teachers are extremely limited.

THE STRIKING CONTRAST BETWEEN THE REGION'S TEACHERS AND STUDENTS

> While their classrooms have become filled with children speaking 90 different languages, the vast majority of teachers are monolingual, speaking only English (*San Francisco Examiner* , Dec. 10, 1991, p. B-1).

The number of diverse students in the Western region continues to grow. For example, California, the nation's most racially diverse state, boasts a greater percentage of Asian and Latino students than any other state and the second-highest number of African Americans and American Indians nationally (*Los Angeles Times*, June 13, 1991, pp. A3, 30). Minorities make up approximately half of California's student population, and approximately one third of Arizona's and one fourth of Nevada's student enrollment (Hafner & Green, 1992).

Not only are students in Arizona, California, and Nevada more racially and ethnically diverse than ever before, but they are more linguistically diverse. California leads the Western region and the nation in numbers of LEP students, with approximately 900,000 LEP students (20% of the state's school-age population) and nearly 100 minority languages spoken in its classrooms (CDE, 1991). California's LEP student population is equal to the total enrollments of 37 other states

(Guthrie et al., 1991). Regionally, Arizona follows with approximately 6,000 or 10% of its students classified as LEP (Arizona Department of Education, 1990). LEP students make up only 4% of students in Nevada (Nevada Department of Education, 1991). However, between 1990-1991, Clark County, the state's most populous, experienced a 31% increase in its LEP student enrollment (Young, 1992).

The increasingly diverse student populations in all three states contrast sharply with the region's homogeneous and predominantly Anglo teaching force. California's teachers remain 82% Anglo, almost unchanged from a decade ago. Approximately 86% of Arizona teachers and 90% of Nevada's teachers are Anglo (*Education Daily*, Jan. 16, 1992, p. 6). These figures mirror national trends. In 1980, for example, the U.S. Department of Education reported that approximately 12% of the nation's teachers were ethnic minorities (Yopp et al., 1991). Minority teachers now comprise only 4.5% of the teaching force (National Center for Education Statistics, 1991)

Not only do the ethnic backgrounds of the teachers differ markedly from their students' backgrounds, but their teachers are not sufficiently proficient in the students' first languages to provide instruction in them, nor are they the products of special training designed to meet the instructional needs of language minority students. Berman et al. (1992) report that only half of California's Spanish-speaking students are taught by a teacher who speaks Spanish. Among other language groups, only 10-20% of students are taught by teachers who speak the students' languages. Similarly, a recent study of first- and second-year teachers in California found less than 15% of the new teachers in the sample said they were sufficiently proficient in a language other than English to provide instruction in that language. Similarly, only 15% held a credential or certificate that qualified them to teach language-minority students. However, on average, one

fourth of the new teachers' students were LEP. One in 10 teachers taught in classes where at least five non-English languages were spoken (Dianda, 1991).

In states like California, the serious and continuing shortage of bilingual teachers is approaching crisis proportions. With nearly 1 in 5 students speaking little or no English, the state has approximately 8,000 teachers with bilingual teaching credentials, and another 4,000 who are not bilingual teachers, but are credentialed to help students acquire English language skills. Together, these 12,000 teachers fill less than half the state's need for bilingual teachers (Lambert, 1991). According to the California Association of Bilingual Education (CABE), the shortage is so great that there is an "approaching disaster" for the 1.5 million additional language minority students expected to arrive in the state by the year 2005 (*Los Angeles Times*, Feb. 4, 1991, p. B4).

As a result, districts are forced to make unfortunate instructional compromises. For example, Berman et al. (1992) note that districts in California are extending their limited numbers of bilingual and multilingual teachers through English as a Second Language (ESL) Pull-Out programs and sheltered English programs. In the former, language minority students received instruction for a portion of the day from trained teachers. However, they returned to classrooms where their regular teachers had no special training in working with language minority students. Berman and his colleagues conclude, "Since these students spend the vast majority of their time in English-only classrooms, they were placed in an extremely difficult situation in this model unless regular classroom teachers had suitable experience and training in cultural sensitivity and had knowledge about second-language acquisition" (p. 11). The sheltered English model, which is relatively new, also suffers from the lack of bilingual or multilingual teachers. Few teachers in this study had fluency in their students' native languages. Therefore, they could not clarify English instruction by using those languages, although this is an essential element of effective sheltered instruction (Schifini, 1991).

Although the shortage of bilingual teachers is most acute in California, other Western region states are feeling similar pressures. For example, with fewer than 1,000 bilingual credentialed teachers in 1989-90, there was one credentialed bilingual teacher available for every 74 LEP students enrolled in Arizona schools that year (Hafner & Green, 1992).

The least diverse of the Western region states, Nevada does not currently grant a bilingual credential. In contrast, in 1993 California will replace its current bilingual credential and its language development specialist certificate with a new basic emphasis credential that acknowledges the increasingly multicultural and multilingual nature of the state's students. The new credentials are a bilingual cross-cultural language and academic development credential (BLAD) and a cross-cultural language and academic development credential (CLAD) (CTC, 1992).

Throughout the region, educators and policymakers are struggling to bridge the cultural, ethnic, and linguistic gap between the region's students and teachers. Programs that attract minority youngsters into teaching careers and recruit minority college students into teacher training programs are examples of longer-term strategies designed to change the ethnicity of the teaching force (Justiz & Kameen, 1988; Haberman, 1989; Applegate & Henninger, 1989). More immediate approaches include revamping teacher preparation programs so that the region's future teachers are trained to deal more effectively with diverse students and providing additional inservice training for teachers to help them "retool" and acquire new skills needed to function effectively in diverse classrooms. For example, in a review of preservice courses and in-service staff development activities offered by colleges, universities and county offices of education in Arizona, Nevada, and Southern California, Hafner and Green (1992) report course offerings that lead to special certificates related to teaching language-minority students. They also report on classes that focus on diversity, bilingual instruction and curriculum materials, ESL strategies, and multiculturalism.

More needs to be done to help prospective teachers negotiate the cultural and linguistic differences between themselves and their students (The Holmes Group, 1990; Grant & Secada, 1990). Of particular relevance to this report are calls for increased attention to first-and second-language acquisition and effective ways to teach language-minority students (The Holmes Group, 1990; Grant & Secada, 1990; CTC, 1992). The preservice and in-service course review mentioned above showed that these areas were not addressed in most of the courses offered by institutions of higher education and county offices of education in the Western region. The courses did not provide teachers with information on first- and second-language acquisition nor did they help teachers develop skills related to integrating academic content with English language development or developing students' English literacy skills (Hafner & Green, 1992).

In summary, for the foreseeable future, the region's predominantly Anglo, monolingual English-speaking teachers, who at best have limited training and experience teaching language-minority students, will be asked to do so. Included in these ranks are increasing numbers of beginning teachers who are no more culturally or linguistically diverse than their experienced colleagues (Dianda et al., 1991; Guthrie et al., 1991).

The next section of the report synthesizes major findings from current research into a body of knowledge considered essential for beginning teachers: basic knowledge about language development and how the language-minority students in their classrooms acquire a second language.

BASIC KNOWLEDGE ABOUT LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT AND SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION FOR BEGINNING TEACHERS

> Clearly, understanding language acquisition theory and the relationship between conceptualization and language are essential for effective teaching (Olsen & Mullen, 1990, p. 53).

The aim of instruction provided to language minority students throughout the Western region is two-fold. First, instruction is designed to develop the students' English proficiency. Second, instruction fosters the development of students' academic knowledge and skills. Furthermore, to ensure that language minority students have an equal opportunity to achieve academically, to the extent possible, they receive instruction in their first or primary languages (CTC, 1992; Tikunoff, 1990). Outlined below are several principles of language development that have emerged from research that undergird these instuctional aims and, as a consequence, the activities of classroom teachers. Discussed briefly and in nontechnical terms, each provides a key piece of knowledge teachers need so they understand which instructional practices are effective with language minority students and why they are effective. The discussion is based on cogent reviews by Cummins (1979, 1981, 1984), Cummins and McNeely (1987), Krashen (1981), Tikunoff (1990), and Collier (1989).

Language Acquisition and Language Learning Are Different

Students can develop ability in a second language in two different ways: They can acquire the language or they can learn it. Researchers draw an important distinction between language acquisition and language learning. As Krashen (1981) explains, "In everyday terms, acquisition is picking up a language. Ordinary equivalents for learning include grammar and rules" (p. 56). Although both options are available to second-language learners, acquisition is preferable since it is

similar to the way children develop first-language competence. It is a subconscious process. Children are unaware that they are acquiring language. They merely are aware of using the language to communicate.

Obviously, a relationship exists between acquisition and learning, but language acquisition is the more important process. Acquisition is responsible for fluency in a second language, and the ability to use it easily and comfortably. Conscious learning, on the other hand, has only one function: as an editor or monitor (Krashen, 1981, p. 57). Krashen explains that students use language learning to make corrections either before they speak or write, or after speaking or writing through self-correction.

The distinction between language acquisition and language learning has important instructional implications. Students will not acquire English if instruction focuses on "grammatical competence" in which grammar, spelling, vocabulary, sentence structure, literal meaning, and pronunciation are stressed (Cummins, 1984). Krashen (1981) argues that effective second-language teaching will "put grammar in its proper place. . . Children have very little capacity for conscious language learning and may also have little need for conscious learning, since they can come close to native speaker performance standards using acquisition alone" (p. 64).

Students Acquire a Second Language When It Is Meaningful Or Comprehensible

Most second-language theorists endorse some form of the comprehensible input principle advanced by Krashen (1981). According to this principle, second-language acquisition depends on more than mere exposure. Rather, it depends on second language input (spoken or written) that has been modified to make it comprehensible or meaningful (Cummins, 1987). "Comprehensible input refers to meaningful language that is available to students and therefore is useful in

developing their proficiency. Comprehensible input is basic to effective instruction; students must be able to understand to learn" (Fradd, 1987, p. 135).

According to Krashen (1981), students do not acquire English or any other second language by focusing on the language's structure or grammar. Instead, acquisition is grounded in understanding messages in the second language that contain new structures the student is ready to acquire. Or as Krashen (1981) says, "We acquire language by understanding input that contains structures that are just beyond our current level of competence" (p. 61).

Second-language learners acquire their second language in the same way children acquire their first language. Children acquiring language rarely focus on the form of the language itself but instead concentrate on the meaning that is communicated as they begin to use that language for a variety of functions (e.g., finding out about things) (Cummins, 1987). Similarly, second language learners acquire the structure of the second language by understanding the messages they see and read in that language, not by focusing on grammar and form. By using context information, their knowledge of the world, and a variety of extra-linguistic cues teachers provide, students can understand language that contains structures they do not yet "know," but as a consequence of their exposure to comprehensible input, soon will.

Students' Anxiety, Motivation, and Confidence Play a Role In Second-language Acquisition

Second-language acquisition research indicates that three affective variables are related to students' success in acquiring a second language: anxiety, motivation, and self-confidence (Krashen 1987). As one might guess, when students are anxious, not motivated, or lack self-confidence, they have a mental block (i.e., affective filter) that prevents them from using what they hear and see for further acquisition. They may understand the input, but it does not enter the "language acquisition

device" (Krashen, 1981; p. 62). Krashen concludes, "people acquire second languages when they obtain comprehensible input and when their affective filters are low enough to allow the input in" (p. 62).

First- and Second-language Academic Skills Are Interdependent

Although most widely discussed among linguists, the principle of "linguistic interdependence" (Cummins, 1979) is important to teachers' understanding of the relationship between students' first language and English. As described by Cummins and McNeely (1987), "At deeper levels of conceptual understanding, there is considerable overlap, or interdependence across languages. Conceptual knowledge developed in one language helps to make input in the other language comprehensible" (p. 94). In other words, in a Spanish-English bilingual program, Spanish instruction that develops Spanish reading and writing skills also is developing a deeper conceptual and linguistic proficiency strongly related to the development of students' English literacy.

When translated into instructional practice, this principle argues strongly against "sink or swim" (Krashen, 1981) programs in which all instruction for LEP students is provided in English and there is no attempt to provide any special instruction or extra help on the students' first languages. In fact, "Classes taught in the first language help children grow in subject matter knowledge and stimulate cognitive development, which in turn, helps second language acquisition" (Krashen, 1981, p. 76).

Cummins and McNeely (1987) conclude, "The results of virtually all evaluations of bilingual programs for both majority and minority students are consistent with predictions derived from the interdependence principle" (p. 80). And, as the next principle illustrates, this principle also is at the heart of findings concerning the length of time students require to attain levels of English proficiency required for grade-level achievement.

Students Attain Conversational Proficiency in a Second Language Long Before Academic Proficiency

A substantial body of research indicates that second-language learners develop fluent conversational skills in English before they develop academic proficiency in English (Cummins, 1984; Snow, 1992). Although there are large individual differences among students, Tikunoff notes (1990) it generally takes two to three years for second-language learners of all ages to acquire basic communication skills in a second language.

It takes much longer for students to acquire the kind of English language proficiency needed to function academically at grade level. Cummins (1981, 1986) estimates that five or more years of exposure to English is required. He explains, "This pattern can be attributed to the fact that native English speakers continue to make significant progress in English reading and writing skills, year after year. They do not stand still waiting for the minority student to catch up (Cummins, 1981, p. 82). But that is exactly what the second-language learner needs; time to catch up to their native English-speaking peers.

Collier (1989) points out that this time span may be as long as 10 years, depending on such factors as the students' age and the degree of formal schooling they have had in their first language. For example, young second-language learners with at least 2 years of schooling in their first language can reach grade level in math and language arts (e.g., spelling, punctuation, and simple grammar) in as little as 2 years, while it generally takes them 5 to 7 years to reach grade level in reading, social studies, and science. If these students come to school without formal schooling in their native language, it will take them 7 to 10 years to reach grade level in reading, social studies, or science. Some may never achieve academic language proficiency.

Second-language learners who are least likely to acquire academic second-language proficiency are adolescents who are unable to continue academic work in their first language, but are expected instead to acquire English. They may never reach grade level and, therefore, are at high risk of dropping out of school. This is apparently the case regardless of the strength of their academic training in their first language.

Building on the linguistic interdependence principle, students who are schooled in their native language and in the second language in bilingual settings often reach grade level in math and language arts in two years. They, too, need four to seven years to reach grade level in reading, social studies, and science.

This principle argues strongly against premature exiting of second-language learners into all-English programs. Cummins and McNeely (1987) point out that educators often mistake second-language students' conversational proficiency in English for academic proficiency, which leads to disastrous results. "Educators assume that students are ready to survive without support in an all - English classroom on the basis of fact that they appear to be fluent in English. This surface fluency may mask considerable gaps in the development of academic aspects of English, with the result that students perform considerably below grade level in the regular classroom" (Cummins & McNeely, 1987, p. 82). Once students exit bilingual classes for English-only instructional settings, they still need additional first language support.

Contextual Information and Appropriate School Tasks Key to Student Success

The demands of school language differ across grade levels and instructional tasks. For example, in the primary grades contextual support in the form of puppets, pictures, music, and movement games helps language minority students comprehend what the teacher is trying to communicate in English (Fradd, 1987). Instruction is context-embedded (Cummins, 1981). As students progress

in school, and their ability to express and comprehend English increases, the language used in instruction becomes more context-reduced (Cummins, 1981). Students are provided little contextual information or clues to help make English, and the instructional task they are asked to perform, more understandable. At the same time, the tasks themselves become more cognitively demanding. For example, students may be asked to listen to a lecture, which is decontextualized, and write a report based on the lecture.

Students' ability to deal with English in terms of the cognitive demands of school tasks and their need for contextual information to understand English instruction are key considerations for classroom teachers. Teachers of language minority students need to adjust their teaching to provide additional contextual support until the students attain a level of English proficiency that does not require these extra-linguistic cues (Cummins, 1981). Similarly, teachers need to examine the academic tasks they ask students to perform in terms of their level of cognitive demand, making sure that "they match students' level of functioning with tasks that are moderately demanding, but within students' capacity to accomplish" (Fradd, 1987).

Students Are Enriched Academically By Their Bilingualism

Far from being a negative force in students' academic development, recent studies suggest that bilingual students develop "additive bilingualism" (Cummins & McNeely, 1987). That is, they add a second language to their linguistic repertoire at no cost to the development of their first language. And as Cummins and McNeely (1987) note, "although not conclusive, the evidence points in the direction of . . . academic and intellectual benefits for bilingual students" (p. 80). However, research also indicates that if students do not continue to develop both their languages in school, any initial positive effects of being bilingual often are counteracted (i.e., subtractive bilingualism). Students apparently need to attain a threshold level of proficiency in both languages to avoid negative academic consequences. And they need to attain an even higher level of

proficiency if they are to reap the full intellectual and linguistic benefits of being bilingual and biliterate (Hornberger, 1990; Snow, 1992).

In summary, the research on second-language acquisition reviewed here indicates that:

- Students benefit from access to two linguistic systems—their native language and English—if the school's program continues to develop students' academic skills in both languages.

- Regardless of the educational program provided to language minority students, they are likely to take considerably longer than their English-speaking peers to develop the English language facility required for grade-level achievement, particularly in reading and the content areas.

- Teaching in the students' first language will not result in lower levels of academic achievement in English, provided that the instructional program is effective in developing academic skills in the first language.

- To ensure second-language acquisition, students must experience the language they are expected to learn in ways that make it comprehensible or meaningful.

- If the students can follow and understand the lesson, second-language acquisition will occur in subject matter classes taught in the second language.

- Effective instruction—instruction that promotes students' acquisition of English—transmits meaning to students, not specific points of grammar.

- Effective instruction is based on teachers' analysis of the academic demands they place on students and the students' need for instruction in which contextual information and additional cues make English understandable.

This basic information about second-language acquisition lays the foundation for understanding why the practices described in the next section of the report are effective. The section describes instructional strategies identified in studies of "schools and classrooms whose language minority students were particularly successful academically" (Garcia, 1992, p. 1).

EFFECTIVE INSTRUCTIONAL PRACTICES WITH LANGUAGE MINORITY STUDENTS

> "Even when strong ESL and bilingual programs exist, which is often not the case, the mainstream classroom teacher is still faced with the extra challenge of students who need both English language development and native language support" (Olsen & Mullen, 1990, p. 49).

Information on how teachers provide language minority students with effective English language development and first or primary language support comes from studies of bilingual programs (both early and late exit), immersion programs, ESL Pull-Out programs, and programs that deliver instruction primarily in English as an alternative to traditional bilingual education (Berman et al., 1992; Ramirez et al., 1991; Garcia, 1992; Tikunoff et al., 1991; Cummins, 1986; Garcia, 1988; Lucas et al., 1990). These studies identified schools and classrooms in which the achievement of American Indian, Asian and Southeast Asian, and particularly, Latino language minority students, was measured at or above national norms. Success was defined as "increasing student achievement both in proficiency and literacy in English as a second language and academic achievement in the major content areas" (Castaneda, 1992, p. 1). Much of what constituted effective practice in these settings is grounded in the second-language acquisition research reported earlier.

In commenting on the strength of the research base, Garcia (1992) concludes that, "Although much more research is required with the great diverse populations of students served by our schools, we are not without a knowledge base that can make a difference" (p. 7). In fact, the convergence of the findings across studies suggests that the instructional strategies discussed here constitute a core of some importance. This convergence, particularly at the level of effective instructional practices, is especially important given the political debate over bilingual education and which of a number of competing models are successful in ensuring the academic achievement of language minority students (McGroarty, 1992, Cziko, 1992).

Although conducted on different bilingual education models, or alternatives to traditional bilingual education models, all the studies were descriptive, and as such, were grounded in observations in classrooms from preschool through high school and in interviews with teachers. By observing what transpired in the classrooms, the studies identified effective and ineffective instructional strategies.

While the studies provide a rich picture of effective practice, a few caveats are in order. In a recent review of the literature, Castaneda (1992) notes that only one study has investigated curricula and instruction in multiple language settings. Many mainstream teachers in the region teach in classrooms that include students from several different linguistic and cultural backgrounds. Furthermore, a recent study of programs for language minority students in California showed that schools were using combinations of approaches to respond to the increasing number of primary languages represented among the language minority student population and the shortage of bilingual and multilingual teachers (Berman et al., 1992).

In addition, while the strategies listed make a difference in students' academic achievement, Olsen and Mullen (1990) report teachers' hesitancy with lists of what they should do and correctly

points out that there are many ways to be an effective teacher in diverse classrooms. The intent of this report is not to prescribe best practice. Instead, it highlights a number of practices that have been identified as effective.

With those caveats and reminders in mind, listed below are effective instructional strategies for language minority students. The discussion is tailored for beginning teachers, particularly monolingual English speakers, who teach in classrooms where they face the added challenge of providing English language development and first-language support to language minority students.

To review quickly, the following principles were identified in the literature on second-language acquisition as key to effective instruction of language minority students:

- Language acquisition and language learning are different.
- Students acquire a second language when it is meaningful or comprehensible.
- Contextual information and appropriate school tasks are key to student success.
- Students' anxiety, motivation, and confidence play a role in second-language acquisition.
- First- and second-language skills are interdependent.
- Students are enriched by their bilingualism.
- Students attain conversational proficiency in a second language long before they attain academic proficiency.

Successful teachers of language minority students identified in the studies of effective classroom practices reflected these research-based principles in that they:

- Used strategies that fostered English acquisition.
- Attended to the important role of their motivation, anxiety, and self-confidence played in language minority students' success.
- Provided first-language support for students.
- Integrated English language and academic skill development.
- Made English comprehensible to language minority students.

Used Strategies That Fostered English Acquisition

Successful teachers of language minority students gave students time to begin to assimilate the language and use English to communicate with peers and with the teacher. As important, the teachers focused on function rather than on grammatical form so that students began to use English as a means to communicate or as a language they found they could use to accomplish an instructional task. More specifically:

- Teachers involved students in using English functionally and purposefully to accomplish tasks. Teachers checked often with students to verify the clarity of an assignment and students' roles in its completion (Garcia, 1992).

- Students made the transition to English from their first language without any pressure from the teacher. However, students were encouraged to respond in English whenever possible and appropriate (Castaneda, 1992).

- Students were encouraged to make the transition from speaking to reading and writing English when they were ready, and they were provided many opportunities to gain oral competence as a foundation for reading and writing (Castaneda, 1991).

- Teachers focused on the content or meaning of students' English rather than on its correctness. This is not to say, they were not concerned with students' English usage, but they did not use content-area instruction for this purpose (Fradd, 1987).

Attended to the Important Role Affect Played In Language Minority Students' Success

Successful teachers not only used but embraced their students' diversity (Olsen & Mullen, 1990) as reflected in strategies they employed to decrease language minority students' anxiety and increase their motivation and self-confidence. That is:

- Teachers were highly committed to the success of their students and served as student advocates (Garcia, 1992).

- Classrooms were characterized by high expectations and positive affirmation of student's language, culture, and learning potential (Olsen & Mullen, 1990).

- Teachers deliberately established a human relations climate in the classroom that set out clear norms of behavior with regard to: mutual respect, emotional safety, and appreciation of diversity (Olsen & Mullen, 1990).

- Teachers communicated high expectations for students in terms of English language acquisition and subject area achievement, and teachers communicated their own sense of efficacy in terms of their ability to teach all students (Tikunoff, 1987; Garcia, 1992; Garcia & Strobbe, 1989).

- Teachers arranged their classes based on students' general academic abilities, their level of language functioning in their first language, their English proficiency, and their personal interests (Castaneda, 1992).

- Instructional groupings were organized to reflect and build upon norms and structures governing group membership and participation in the students' home cultures, even while the norms of the majority culture were being taught (Tikunoff, 1987).

- Teachers employed a curriculum that validated and built on students' self-esteem and sense of their own culture and national background, while it also broadened their perspective and world view (Olsen & Mullen, 1990).

- Individual instructional activities and individual competition among students were limited. Similarly, whole-group instruction was rare, usually confined to classroom start-up activities. Instead, classrooms were lively and even noisy environments in which students collaborated with each other in small groups to complete assignments (Garcia, 1992).

- Teachers validated students' cultures and experiences by encouraging students to use their first language as they were acquiring English and by incorporating literature, music, and art from the students' cultures into lessons (Fradd, 1987; Garcia, 1992).

- During instruction, teachers used cultural referents from the students' home cultures, and, to the extent possible given the teachers' second language proficiency, used them in the students' first languages (Tikunoff, 1985).

Provided First-language Support for Students

The research literature clearly emphasizes the important role of primary language support in academic skill and English language development (e.g., Cummins & McNeely, 1987; Krashen, 1981). Within bilingual settings, successful teachers of language minority students mediate instruction effectively by using the students' first language and English, alternating between the two languages when necessary to provide clear instruction (Tikunoff, 1987). Unfortunately, the monolingual English-speaking teacher does not have this option. The following are examples of creative and effective steps monolingual English-speaking teachers have taken to broker the provision of primary language support to their language minority students (Lucas & Katz, 1991; Tikunoff et al., 1991; Riddlemoser, 1987; Olsen & Mullen, 1990):

- Teachers paired less English-fluent students with students of the same first-language background who were more English-fluent. In this way, the more fluent student could help the less fluent one with language, understanding directions, and classroom demands (Lucas & Katz, 1991; Riddlemoser, 1987; Olsen & Mullen, 1990).

- Students were encouraged to use their first language when working in small groups (Tikunoff et al., 1991; Garcia, 1992).

- Teachers allowed and even encouraged students to use bilingual dictionaries when they did not understand something in English and there was no one who could translate for them (Lucas & Katz, 1991).

- If students struggled with responses or questions in English, teachers asked them to express themselves in their first language, enlisted others who understood the students' first language for translation, and used the opportunity to develop the English behind the concept under study (Tikunoff et al., 1991).

- Teachers encouraged students to get help at home in their first language from older siblings, parents, grandparents, and extended family members (Lucas & Katz, 1991).

- To keep students at academic grade level, teachers worked with trained paraprofessionals (i.e., instructional aides) who were proficient in the students' first language to provide instruction in that language under the teacher's direction (Lucas & Katz, 1991).

- Students were provided first-language dictionaries and books in their first languages (Lucas & Katz, 1991).

- Teachers sent notes to parents in English and, with the aid of a translator, in the students' first languages (Riddlemoser, 1987).

- Teachers encouraged students' parents to read to them in their first languages (Riddlemoser, 1987).

In these ways, students' first languages were used to help them achieve academically. Concurrently, teachers stressed English language development, not in isolation, but as is explained next, by integrating it with content instruction.

Integrated English Language and Academic Skill Development

While first-language support was a persistent and key strategy in effective instruction of language minority students, successful teachers also embedded English language development in content instruction through such approaches as content-based ESL or sheltered English. In this way, the teacher assigns equal importance to academic instruction and overall English language development (Castaneda, 1992). Based on their own work and reviews of the literature, Garcia (1992), Tikunoff (1985, 1990, 1992), Tikunoff et al. (1991), Fradd (1987), Lucas and Katz (1991), Castaneda (1991, 1992), Olsen and Mullen (1990), and Schifini (1991) list ways that successful teachers organize instruction that integrates language development with academic skills development:

- Teachers varied grouping arrangements using pairs, triads, and cooperative learning strategies to provide students with opportunities to learn English. Students with varying levels of English language proficiency worked together, with the teacher monitoring the students' English fluency and regrouping based on changing proficiency levels (Lucas & Katz, 1991).

- Prior to each lesson, teachers taught students key vocabulary words and previewed the instructional tasks and activities students would perform (Tikunoff, 1985).

- Teachers instructed students in key study skills, including how to listen to directions and explanations of concepts, taking notes, outlining, and preparing for tests (Tikunoff, 1985).

- Depending on the students' individual levels of English language proficiency, the tasks and activities students were asked to perform required more than a single word or phrase. Instead, students were encouraged to form complete sentences and to engage in activities that required multiple steps to complete and drew on higher cognitive processes (Tikunoff et al, 1991; Ramirez et al., 1991).

- Academic content instruction was consistently organized around thematic units. This allowed teachers to integrate academic content with the development of basic skills, and allowed students to study a topic in depth and become "experts" in the thematic domains while also acquiring academic skills (Garcia, 1992).

- Instruction emphasized the development of complex intellectual skills, critical thinking, and analytic tools, and provided ample opportunities for students to develop more complex language skills (Ramirez et al., 1991; Olsen & Mullen, 1990).

- Teachers ensured that instruction did not become watered down or remedial (Schifini, 1988).

- Teachers were supported by a student-centered curriculum, which promoted students' literacy in English while continuing first-language support for students as long as needed. This curriculum focus pervasive in all aspects of instruction and across grade levels (Olsen & Mullen, 1992).

In addition, teachers who taught in diverse classrooms did not stop being good teachers, and in fact, employed effective strategies for teaching any student, regardless of his or her English proficiency level. Cazden (1984) notes that all teachers should employ the following practices:

- Successful teachers generally exhibited "active teaching" behaviors found to be related to increased student performance in reading and math achievement. That is, teachers:

  (a) Communicated clearly when giving directions, accurately describing the tasks and specifying how students will know when the tasks are completed correctly.

  (b) Presented new information by explaining, outlining, and/or demonstrating.

  (c) Obtained and maintained students' engagement in instructional tasks by pacing instruction appropriately, by promoting student involvement, and by communicating their expectations for success; and

  (d) Monitored students' progress and provided immediate feedback if students were achieving success or, if not, how they could achieve success (Tikunoff, 1985).

Made English Comprehensible to Language Minority Students

Successful teachers of diverse students used various strategies to make instruction in English comprehensible for students. That is:

- Teachers used English when delivering instruction that had meaning to students. That is, they used language that students could take in, comprehend and use, based on the teachers' analysis of the students' functional level in English. This analysis was completed informally by the teacher and more formally by assessment specialists (Fradd, 1987).

- Teachers modified their speech and used simplified, redundant, and slower speech to allow students more time to process English language input (Tikunoff, 1990).

- Teachers provided contextual support for English language acquisition by using concrete, visual, and auditory materials (e.g., physical objects, video-recorded films, television programs, body language, gestures, demonstrations, map activities, experiments, hands-on student experiences, student-generated art, and written materials) (Tikunoff et al., 1991).

- The classroom environment was organized around a single purpose: Provide clues and reinforce comprehension of the main instructional themes (Schifini, 1988)

- Teachers in sheltered classrooms employed controlled speech patterns, frequently checked for student comprehension, and provided for frequent student verbalization (Schifini, 1988).

Coupled with knowledge of language development and second-language acquisition, these practices constitute a basic core of information mainstream beginning teachers need. The final section of the report discusses progress to date and prospects for ensuring that the Western region's novice teachers receive training and support related to this knowledge base and these key practices.

TRAINING AND SUPPORTING BEGINNING TEACHERS IN DIVERSE SETTINGS

> "Districts throughout California [and the Western region] are beginning to grapple with the need to develop new training programs and incentives to provide mainstream teachers with the special understandings and pedagogical tools to work with such a diverse population" (*Embracing Diversity*, p. 8).

In characterizing the challenges teachers of diverse students face, Tikunoff and Ward (1991) observe that, "Anyone who enters a classroom comprised of students from diverse ethnolinguistic backgrounds comes away sensitized to, if not overwhelmed by, the range of learning abilities, needs, languages, and approaches to learning. . ." (p. 3). These challenges are considerable for the majority of the region's beginning teachers, given the gap between their ethnic, cultural, and linguistic background and the backgrounds of their students. What can school districts throughout the Western region and teacher training institutions in Arizona, California, and Nevada do to prepare these teachers for assignments in diverse settings? Expand the courses and in-service training sessions they offer teachers so that, at a minimum, they focus on the knowledge and skills outlined in this report. By and large, current offerings are limited and they do not address teachers' needs for knowledge and skills needed to succeed in classrooms that are not only culturally diverse,
but are multilingual settings in which students may speak several primary languages and either are not proficient in English or have limited English proficiency.

A criticism of preservice programs has been their focus on knowledge about cultural diversity and not how to teach diverse students (Diez & Murrell, 1990). In fact, studies of the effectiveness of preservice programs with this focus indicate limited success in enhancing prospective teachers' cultural awareness, their willingness to teach in diverse classrooms, or their ability to do so

(Cooper et al., 1990; Larke, 1990; Larke et al., 1990; Haberman & Post, 1990). In interviews with veteran teachers in California, Olsen and Mullen (1990) have documented their criticisms of the preservice training programs they attended for the programs' failure to focus adequately on issues related to instruction in diverse classrooms.

However, as Kennedy (1991) points out, the same limited focus is characteristic of the alternative certification route, staff development, and induction programs designed to equip beginning teachers for multicultural teaching assignments. These programs also focus on knowledge about cultural diversity rather than on how to teach students from multicultural backgrounds. As such, the programs tend not to "discuss the relationship between cultural groups, knowledge of various subject matters, or how to help students from culturally diverse backgrounds grasp subject matter" (Kennedy, 1991, p. 4). Similarly, within the Western region, Hafner and Green (1992) report that preservice and in-service training courses offered by institutions of higher education and county offices of education are doing fairly well at meeting "teacher needs in the areas of different cultural and linguistic values and using information about students' culture to tailor the curriculum and instruction. However, teachers needs in the area of specific instructional strategies and integration of academic content with English language development approaches for language diverse classrooms were not well-met at present." (p. 17).

Dianda (1991) reports that beginning teachers in California who participated in a special statewide teacher induction program indicated their preservice training and the additional training received through the induction program prepared them moderately well for assignments in diverse classrooms. However, this training focused mostly on "being sensitive to different cultures and linguistic values and activities." Areas given the least emphasis were English-language-development instructional strategies, ways to integrate English language development into content instruction, strategies for providing primary language support to language minority students, and ESL or sheltered instructional strategies.

New certification requirements that California plans to institute in 1993 are an important step in broadening the focus of the state's teacher preparation programs and will serve as a model for other states in the Western region. Under the new requirements, teachers of language minority students will need to master the following core of knowledge (whether or not these teachers earn their bilingual authorization): knowledge of language structure; first- and second-language acquisition and development; bilingual, English as a Second Language, and content instruction; culture and cultural diversity; and primary language instruction methods (CTC, 1992).

Still, the reality in the Western region is that teachers who do not have certification will teach most language minority students. For example, in a recent study, Berman et al. (1992) found in their study that few teachers who provided sheltered instruction to language minority students held a language development specialist certificate, although it was required. Instead, they were the regular classroom teachers without any special training. So, while new certification requirements like those in California are significant, it is equally important to expand the knowledge and skills of the regular classroom teacher since so many will be instructing language minority students. Consequently, there are calls for additional preservice courses, more field-based multicultural experiences for preservice teachers, intensified staff development for practicing teachers, and on-the-job support for beginning teachers (Kennedy, 1991; Haberman, 1990; Cooper et al., 1990; Larke (1990); Larke et al., 1990; Ward et al., 1992).

On-the-job or induction support for beginning teachers who are assigned to diverse classrooms includes both training and experienced teacher assistance during the initial years of teaching. With respect to support from an experienced teacher colleague, Olsen (1990) argues that beginning teachers must be paired with experienced teachers who have expertise in three key competency areas: (a) language development; (b) building and teaching in a culturally inclusive curriculum; and (c) establishing a climate supportive of diversity. Unfortunately, given the cultural and linguistic

mix of teachers in the region, their limited training for linguistically diverse classrooms, the continuing influx of language minority students, and the enormous growth in student enrollment regionwide, such experienced teachers are in short supply. Many experienced teachers are learning how to teach in linguistically diverse classrooms alongside their beginning colleagues.

Assistance by teachers who are experts cannot be over emphasized. While research shows that mentor relationships can enhance beginning teachers' classroom performance (Ward et al., 1992; Little, 1989; Shulman, 1985), studies also point out that if mentors are not expert teachers themselves, the beginning teachers whom they assist do not improve their knowledge, strengthen their instructional practice, nor learn to critically examine their instruction (Kennedy, 1991). In short, it is critical to make use of the expertise that exists among veteran teachers by pairing them with beginning teachers. Even though the mentor-mentee cadre may be small, it is another important step in helping the region better equip new teachers to teach diverse students.

Staff development sessions for beginning teachers serve as an on-the-job supplement to preservice training. To date, studies in California indicate that beginning teachers who do not have special certificates to teach language minority students and are placed in diverse classrooms highly value support and training assistance related to teaching these students. And the assistance the beginning teachers received from experienced teachers related to teaching diverse students was significantly related to their ratings of he importance of induction support to their success as beginning teachers (Dianda et al., 1991). Similarly, training in specific techniques to make English comprehensible and meaningful to language minority students (e.g, training in use of visuals, objects, maps) was reflected the new teachers' classroom instruction (Ward et al., 1992).

In spite of efforts to bridge the gap between the cultural and linguistic profiles of the Western region's teachers and students, for the foreseeable future the region's teaching force will remain primarily Anglo. In addition, only a limited number of teachers will speak a language other than

English. Shortages of bilingual teachers and teachers with language development credentials will continue, especially given the expected enrollment growth among language minority students. This means that the region's regular classroom teachers will need to provide language minority students with English language development and first-language support, as well as academic content instruction. The research summarized in this report suggests a core of knowledge and instructional practices effective in teaching language minority students. It is a core that all teachers in the Western region need to master, not just those teachers who seek special certification to teach language minority students. Preservice preparation and additional training and assistance teachers receive on the job during their initial years of teaching can, and should, help them acquire this knowledge base and master instructional practices to teach effectively in the region's diverse classrooms.

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